

FACEWORK IN ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT:
A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY COMPARING RUSSIANS AND AMERICANS

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate facework during potential conflict situations at work across two national cultures. An online questionnaire was administered to 348 participants in Russia and the United States, in their respective languages, to measure reported facework strategies. Relational status had small statistically significant positive effect on accommodative facework and small statistically significant negative effect on assertive facework. Personal power distance had small statistically significant positive effects on integrative, accommodative and assertive facework used by Americans, but had no significant effect on facework used by Russians. Among individuals with low personal power distance, Russians used more integrative, less passive, and more assertive facework than Americans; among individuals with high personal power distance, Americans used more accommodative facework than Russians. The research proposes areas for further investigation of facework in the workplace and implications for professionals working with Americans and Russians in organizations.

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Facework in Organizational Conflict:

A Cross-Cultural Study Comparing Russians and Americans

The size of the culturally diverse workforce in companies all over the world is rapidly increasing. This work force includes immigrants and expatriates from different countries. Most intercultural training created for this group traditionally has focused on cultural differences that may lead to potential conflict situations and on learning how to identify and prevent such situations. However, much less attention in training is paid to understanding universal conflict situations faced by all employees in every country. This project addresses this lack of research.

It is only in the past 25 years that intercultural researchers have become actively engaged in cross-cultural conflict research. Among the problems scholars face in this area is a concern that in a growing number of studies “western conflict inventories may tap inadequately the conflict styles of people from other cultures” (Brew & Cairns, 2004, p. 47). In addition, while an organization is a platform for multiple inter- and intra-group communication, “the impact of multiple group identifications in organizational contexts and their influence on communication process is an underdeveloped area of research” (Paulsen, Graham, Jones, Callan & Gallois, 2005, p. 171). This study contributes to understanding inter-group conflict in organization.

The American and Russian samples were chosen for cross-cultural study due to the researcher’s background (Russian) and current location (living and studying in the U.S.). Additionally, Russians are rarely participants in the research of American scholars, despite the existence of many business and economic links between the Russian Federation and the U.S. today (<http://www.fraec.org>). According to the independent

Deutsche Bank Research, “trade [between the U.S. and Russia] has grown rapidly in recent years” (Nestmann, 2009). “For the first seven months of 2008, [...] the United Census Bureau found out that the total U.S. exports to Russia amounted to \$6.44 billion while Russian imports [to the United States] totaled to \$19.26 billion” (<http://www.foreigntradeexchange.com>). Thus, the chance for representatives of the U.S. and Russia to work within the same company is rising. This study was motivated by a hope to gain results that would have practical value for those professionals who may work with both Russian and American employees and supervisors. The objective is to examine how American and Russian employees would respond to situations that might provoke a potential organizational conflict with superiors and coworkers in each of the two respective countries.

Literature Review

National Culture

In this study, the researcher compares responses to potential conflict situations by representatives of two different national cultures, Russians and Americans. Therefore, it is important to discuss how culture is defined in communication studies, how national culture is different from other types of culture such as ethnic culture or organizational culture, and why its influence is so important to consider in the modern world.

Defining culture has been a fascinating question for scholars in various academic disciplines for years. More than 160 different definitions of the term culture have been identified (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). The term originates from the Latin word *cultura* stemming from *colere* meaning “to tend, guard, cultivate, till” (<http://www.etymonline.com>). In Communication Studies, culture is seen as a

“cultivated” learned system of meanings that fosters a particular sense of shared identity and solidarity among its members, as well as helps them to make sense of the everyday events. It consists of three layers. The most tangible layer is culture artifacts. The layer that lies deeper and is less visible contains symbols (including verbal and non-verbal), meanings and norms. The deepest layer of culture, from which the other layers originate, is the layer of core beliefs, values, and assumptions (Ting-Toomey & Chung, 2005; Schein, 1991).

Culture is considered a driving source of human behavior everywhere. Therefore, understanding different aspects of culture and their influences has been always seen by scholars as very important. Some researchers even believe that in the modern world culture will be the dominant source of conflict (Huntington, 1996).

There are many different types of culture. Each of them characterizes a group of people united by certain values and traditions. We may belong to and practice different types of culture simultaneously. For instance, national culture distinguishes a group of people who live on the same territory or in the same country as a political entity and share common history and language. National culture is different from ethnic culture, which characterizes a group of people with common ancestry and traditions. Thus, people belonging to different ethnic cultures may be members of the same national culture. There are many other types of microcultures that can be described in group classification by age, gender, class, profession, social or economic status and so on. Some of those cultures naturally unite people who are in the same conditions or in the same stages of life. However, there are cultures that are artificially created by humans. One such artificially created culture is an organizational culture. Office slogans and

layouts, as well as architecture, can be seen as the artifacts of organizational culture. The way people communicate at the workplace, whether they do it via email or in person, reflects core values and assumptions of the company. Further, organizational cultures are, to a certain extent, shaped by the national cultures of the countries where the companies are located.

Consequently, one can expect that despite various work experiences and belonging to different organizations, participants of this study will show similar response patterns within their national cultural groups when answering questions about their behavior in organizational conflict.

Conflict in Organizations

Conflict is a pervasive human phenomenon that penetrates all forms of social relationships in all ethnic and cultural groups. While there are many definitions of conflict, in this study conflict is defined as an intense disagreement process between a minimum of two interdependent and interacting parties when they perceive incompatible interests, viewpoints, processes, and/or goals in an interaction episode (Ting-Toomey, 1985). Due to the complexity of organizations' nature and structure, organizational conflict may occur on both interpersonal and intergroup communication levels. In organizations, individuals may have little opportunity to escape the conflict or sever the relationship(s). They must face the conflict situation at work every day until it is solved.

Although many people associate conflict with an unpleasant and even harmful experience, some modern management scholars believe that conflict is good for organizations as it can bring necessary corporate change and development (Cheney, Christensen, Zorn, & Ganesh, 2004; Runde & Flanagan, 2008). Furthermore, conflict is

not necessarily a negative or positive phenomenon. In part because of the strategies individuals use to manage conflict, constructive or destructive outcomes may result.

Conflict Behavior and Its Measurement

Many researchers have tried to classify strategies for dealing with conflict situations. Some of the classifications refer to them as conflict styles or modes. There are two long-accepted conflict style approaches: a five-style approach (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hall, 1969; Thomas, 1976) and a three-style approach (Bell & Blakeney, 1977; Putnam & Wilson, 1982). Both approaches are based on variation of a two-dimensional model. The most widely-used conflict style classifications and their dimensional properties can be followed in table 1.

Table 1. Conflict styles classifications and variations of the underlying two-dimensional models.

Authors and years of origin	Conflict Styles	Dimensions
Blake and Mouton (1964)	1) forcing 2) confronting 3) smoothing 4) withdrawal 5) compromising	- concern for results - concern for people
Hall (1969)	1) win-lose 2) synergistic 3) yield-lose 4) lose-leave 5) compromise	- concern for goals - concern for relationships
Thomas (1976)	1) competing 2) collaborating 3) accommodating 4) avoiding 5) compromise	- party's desires to satisfy Other's concern (cooperativeness) - party's desires to satisfy Own concerns (assertiveness)
Bell and Blakeney (1977)	1) forcing 2) confronting 3) smoothing	- concern for self - concern for others
Putnam and Wilson (1982)	1) control 2) solution orientation 3) nonconfrontation	- concern for self - concern for others

There are five well-known conflict style instruments that use the five-style approach. They were designed by Blake and Mouton (1964), Hall (1969), Lawrence and Lorsch (1967), Thomas and Kilmann (1974), and Rahim (1983). Each of them has been critiqued by researchers in more recent works. For instance, tests of the first four instruments mentioned above showed that their overall reliability coefficients “fall within the low-to-moderate range” (Thomas & Kilmann, 1978, p. 1142). Problems with Hall’s CMS (1969) as well as MODE of Thomas Kilmann were identified by two more researchers. Shockley-Zabalk in 1988 wrote that in spite of criticism, Hall’s CMS is “one of the most widely used self-assessment conflict mode instruments for training business and industry” (p. 316) and is “used to help participants in training identify individual predispositions for conflict management” (p. 317), even though it has no reported test-retest reliabilities, no examined predictive validity, and has high social desirability influence. Thomas-Kilmann’s MODE is also “the instrument most widely used in empirical studies of conflict style.” However, Womack, who tested it in 1988, wrote that the “concurrent and predictive validity of the MODE seem weak” (p. 334) and “test-retest reliability of coefficients fail to meet Nunnally’s criteria for acceptable use in both basic and applied research” (p. 327). Even the most popular Rahim ROCI-II was heavily criticized despite having shown satisfactory internal consistency reliability, favorable test-retest correlations and Cronbach alpha than the other four instruments (Rahim, 1983).

Ross and DeWine (1988) claim that “only Rahim ROCI-II (1983) found five distinct styles through factor analysis” (Ross & DeWine, 1988, p. 391), while Ross and DeWine (1988) as well as other researchers (Bell and Blakeney, 1977; Lawrence and

Lorsch, 1967; Putnam and Wilson, 1982) “challenged the validity of the long-accepted five-style approach, demonstrating through factor analysis the existence of only three identifiable styles” (Ross & DeWine, 1988, p. 390), and stated that the “five-factor structure of the instrument is in question” (Shockley-Zabalk, 1988, p. 315). However, even instruments based on three-style models such as OCCI (Putnam & Wilson, 1982) and CMMS (Ross & DeWine, 1988), despite their comparatively better coefficients of reliabilities and validities, may not fit well for cross-cultural studies.

In the next section the researcher discusses what is the core of the problem with existing conflict style instruments, and presents an approach that has a better perspective on conflict behavior for cross-cultural study.

Conflict Styles and Cross-Cultural Studies

Many researchers recently expressed the opinion that there is a possibility that instruments derived from Western theories may measure conflict styles in the Eastern countries inadequately, and thus may not be generalizable across cultures (Brew & Cairns, 2004; Cai & Fink, 2002; Fink, Cai & Wang, 2006; Kim et al., 2004; Ting-Toomey, 2005). This is particularly true of dual concern models that assume that parties' preferred method of handling conflict is based on only two polar underlying dimensions. This argument has been supported by empirical research. The conflict style study of Cai and Fink (2002) indicated that “the meaning of four of five styles was understood differently by individualists and collectivists; dominating was the only style interpreted similarly by both groups” (Cai & Fink, 2002, p. 81). The authors also suggested that “the items measuring five styles cannot be generated from any two-dimensional typology”

(Cai & Fink, 2002, p. 67) and “there must be other response-style dimensions that are not currently identified” (Cai & Fink, 2002, p. 82).

There have been several attempts to develop and enlarge the conflict style typology. In 1984, Sternberg and Soriano suggested a seven conflict style model for resolving conflict. It included physical action, economic action, wait and see, accept the situation, step-down, third-party, and undermine esteem. In 1987, Sternberg and Dobson expanded the model to 14–16 strategies for conflict resolution representing four factors: nonphysical intensifying styles intended to pressure the opposing side into a settlement, conflict mitigating styles, acceptance of the situation, and physical force. A few years later, Miyahara, Kim, Shin, and Yoon (1998) suggested enlarging the classical conflict style model with two potential additional dimensions: concern for avoiding dislike by others, and concern for avoiding imposition. Two years later Ting-Toomey, Yee-Yung, Shapiro, Garcia, Wright, and Oetzel (2000) added three more conflict response styles to the classic five style system to account for the potentially rich areas of cultural and ethnic differences in conflict: emotional expression, third-party help, and neglect.

Both well-known old and alternative typologies attempt to access mainly “the general behavioral tendencies used during the actual conflict negotiation process” (Ting-Toomey, 2005, p. 74). However, they do not allow us to predict the conflict beginning or foresee the consequences for human relations if the conflict occurs. Thus, examining a phenomenon that may operate before, during, and after an overt conflict would be more useful. A solution that addressed successfully most of the issues, mentioned above, was offered by Ting-Toomey (1998; 2005) with her face-negotiation theory. The concept of facework shares characteristics with the concept of conflict management styles; however,

unlike conflict styles it “refers to the specific verbal and nonverbal behaviors” (Ting-Toomey & Takai, 2006, p. 701) that “can be used before (preventive facework), during, or after (restorative facework) a conflict episode” (Ting-Toomey, 2005, p. 78).

Moreover, the facework concept “better represents cross-cultural conflict interaction and ratings of intercultural communication competence” (Oetzel, Garcia & Ting-Toomey, 2008, p. 385). Thus, the examination of facework strategies was chosen as appropriate for this cross-cultural study.

Facework, Face, and Face-Concern

The idea of facework was derived from the concept of face. Although the concept of face is widely used across cultures, perception of what counts as face threats and their meaning and use may depend on a culture (Hu, 1944; Morisaki & Gudykunst, 1994; Ting-Toomey, 1993). In the current study, face is referred to as the claimed sense of favorable social self-worth and/or projected other-worth in a public situation (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998).

Face is a resource of identity, both precious and vulnerable at the same time. It can be “threatened, enhanced, undermined, and bargained over” (Ting-Toomey, 2005, p. 73) or, in short, negotiated during the conflict simultaneously on affective (e.g., feelings/emotions), behavioral (facework), and cognitive (e.g., calculating whether and how much face to give or receive) levels. Such negotiation is often determined by the orientation of the face or face concern of the communicator, which can be one of the following: self-face concern, other-face concern or mutual-face concern. Self-face is the concern for one’s own image over any other image, whereas other-face is primary

concern for another's image. Mutual-face is the simultaneous concern for parties' images and/or the "image" of the relationship (Ting-Toomey, 2005).

Facework and Facework Typology

Facework is communication behavior that is involved in face-maintaining and face-negotiation processes. In a conflict, facework may function to resolve conflict, exacerbate conflict, avoid conflict, threaten or challenge another person's position, protect a person's image, or to even manage a shared social identity (Oetzel et al., 2000; Oetzel et al., 2008). Facework is a universal phenomenon, but it may be enacted differently from culture to culture. It involves "specific strategies that focus on a person's claimed positive image before, during, and/or after the conflict and describes how individuals are thinking beyond goal assessments above and beyond the conflict situation" (Oetzel et al., 2008, p. 385).

Oetzel (2000) and his associates postulated 13 different types of facework behavior during conflicts with best friends or relative strangers: (a) aggression, (b) apologizing, (c) avoiding, (d) compromising, (e) considering the other, (f) defending self, (g) expressing feelings, (h) giving in, (i) talking about the problem, (j) third party, (k) pretending, (l) private discussion, and (m) remaining calm. In 2001, Ting-Toomey and Oetzel updated this typology and created an 87-item scale to operationalize those 13 facework categories. Changes in the typology were minor and related more to renaming the categories. The category *aggression* was changed to *direct/passive aggression*. The category *talking about the problem* was replaced with *integrating*, perhaps due to a larger scope this term can represent, as it can involve more than just verbal behavior as was suggested in their first version.

Factor analysis of appropriateness and effectiveness ratings of each of the categories in the original study (Oetzel et al., 2000) revealed three underlying categories: dominating facework, avoiding facework, and integrating facework. Aggression and defending self were examples of dominating facework, which focuses on presenting a credible image and wanting to win the conflict. Avoiding, giving in, involving a third party, and pretending were examples of avoiding facework, which emphasize the preservation of relational concerns by not directly addressing the conflict. Apologizing, compromising, considering the other, private discussion, remaining calm, and talking about the problem were examples of integrating facework, which emphasize both the resolution of the conflict and the preservation of the relationship. Expressing feelings was associated with both dominating and integrating facework (Oetzel et al., 2000).

This typology showed internationally reliable coding of responses with American and Japanese judges' agreement of .98 (kappa =.97) and .86 (kappa =.85). A variety of appropriateness and effectiveness ratings supported the representational validity of the categories. The item contents of each cluster were logically interpretable and can serve as an initial step to operationalize the dimensions of self-, other-, and mutual-face in the face-negotiation theory. The typology applies to both intergroup and interpersonal situations, as well as to variety of cultures (Oetzel et al., 2000).

Such properties make facework typology appear superior for measuring facework to Baxter's (1984) politeness inventory, which was based on the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1978) and was most often used in facework studies of the past. Unlike the facework typology of Oetzel et al. (2000), Baxter's (1984) inventory items appear rather limited in their expressions of both self-face and other-face maintenance, as

Baxter's measure of negative and positive politeness contains aspects of self- and other-face that are not equivalent. Additionally, many criticisms acknowledged by the authors themselves (Brown & Levinson, 1987) suggest that the concept of facework based on politeness strategies might be culturally biased (Tracy, 1990), and does not examine conflict situations specifically (Oetzel et al., 2001). Thus, the more recent facework typology of Oetzel et al. (2000) is a much more reliable and culturally-sensitive instrument.

Linking Facework, Face-Concern and Status

Face-negotiation theory argues that individual-level factors (e.g., self-construal), situational features (e.g., relational intimacy and status) and cultural variability (e.g. individualism-collectivism and power distance), affect conflict management and facework via the construct of face. These arguments have been supported in prior research on individual (Singelis & Brown, 1995), situational (Oetzel et al., 2001; Ting-Toomey et al., 2000) and cultural levels (Ting-Toomey et al., 1991; Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). However, the theoretical links among face concerns, facework strategies, and status have not been as well researched. Only a few studies in this area measured facework in light of the recently developed facework typology (Oetzel et al., 2000).

Two major works that used the typology were published by Oetzel with his colleagues in 2001 and 2008. They investigated conflict facework in four countries: China, Japan, Germany, and USA. Their first study in 2001 aimed to explore the influence of individual, situational, and cultural factors on facework in conflict strategies. Among the most intriguing findings is the fact that "status did not impact face and face concerns" (Oetzel et al., 2001, p. 254). The authors provided several potential

explanations for this unexpected data: 1) the situation may not influence choice of strategy as much as we think it does; 2) “the experimental manipulation of recalling a situation may not be as salient as a real situation” (Oetzel et al., 2001, p. 255); 3) “Japanese and Chinese participants were not affected by the experimental manipulation as much as Germans and U.S. Americans.” There could also be another explanation. In this study, status was manipulated by the request to “recall a conflict with someone who is equal status or higher status” (Oetzel et al., 2001, p. 243). This is very general phrasing that does not specify organizational setting. In such conditions, the participant, who was assigned to recall a conflict with someone of a higher status, could recall a conflict with a grandparent, a mentor, or a friend who holds a higher economic position or has a certain prestige in society. Such relationships may be much less bound with duties and obligations than are involved in the relationship with a superior in an organization. Moreover, one can delay communication with a grandparent, change a mentor, or break a friendship without serious consequences for their future survival and professional growth. At the workplace, people must face the conflict situation every day until it is resolved. Therefore, it is very likely that status in organizational context may have a greater impact on facework in conflict. However, research has not considered organizational framework and the use of Oetzel et al.’s facework typology (2000). This study fills in this gap.

The second study Oetzel and colleagues did in 2008 was based on the sample from a previous study and examined the relationship between face-concern and facework strategies across cultures. They found that associations among face-concern and facework strategies “have some cultural differences, but are largely consistent for the

pan-cultural relationships among face and facework” (Oetzel et al., 2008, p. 382). Most similarities across cultures were found in the relationship among other-face concern and the three primary facework strategies, which are dominating, integrating and avoiding facework, as well as in the relationships of three types of face concern with avoiding facework. The differences were evident in the relationships of self- and mutual-face and three primary facework strategies, as well as in the relationships for integrating and dominating facework strategies (Oetzel et al., 2008). However, as in the previous study, this research did not consider specifically organizational context.

Facework and Cultural Dimensions

Almost any study on intercultural communication, including studies grounded in face-negotiation theory, uses a grid of Hostede’s two cultural dimensional axes, individualism-collectivism and power distance, to explain predominant approaches to conflict management (Ting-Toomey & Oetzel, 2001). Measurement of individualism-collectivism was outside of scope of this study, while measurement of power distance was considered on the individual level.

Facework and Power Distance Dimension

Power distance is “the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 1991, p. 28). People in low-power distance cultures believe that power should be distributed relatively equally, people should have equal rights, and status should be diminished. People in high-power distance cultures believe that power should be distributed unequally, accept hierarchical relations, and reward and sanction based on rank and status. Power distance and individualism-collectivism are related in many

societies. Specifically, collectivistic cultures tend also to be high-power distance cultures and individualistic cultures tend also to be low-power distance cultures (Hofstede, 1991).

Assumptions about power distance dimensions were also tested in the previously mentioned study of Oetzel et al. (2001) on facework across four different cultures. The results only partially supported theory:

“there were greater differences in the status conditions for collectivistic cultures compared to individualistic cultures. However, there were only slight differences in two behaviors for collectivistic cultures” (p. 252).

Although it is important to continue research in this direction, the current study was unlikely to show differences in facework of Russians and Americans by cultural level of power distance. Naumov and Puffer’s (2000) study showed that both Russian culture in the mid-1990s and the U.S. culture appeared to have the same moderate score of 40 in Hofstede’s scale of power distance. Since the researcher did not expect differences on this scale, power distance measurement on the cultural level was not included in this study.

However, individuals do not always possess all of their culture’s values. Beliefs about fair distribution of power may vary within the same country. Thus, there can be people with low and high endorsement of power distance within the same country. This personal endorsement of power distance, as the previous research (Oetzel et al., 2001) shows, may have an effect on their behavior in a potential conflict situation. For instance, Oetzel and his colleagues (2001) found that “the higher individuals’ power distance, the more likely they use [aggressive, defending, apologizing, pretending, using a third party and giving in] facework behaviors and have all three face concerns” (p. 250). Thus, this study measured personal power distance.

Based on the findings of this literature, the following research question was posed:

RQ1: Do participant's use of facework strategies in the workplace vary according to their culture group membership, relational status of other in a potentially conflict situation, and personal endorsement of power distance?

This study examined and compared facework strategies reported by Russians and Americans in the potential conflict situations at work.

Method

Participants

In the current study, 413 participants completed the questionnaire. There were 65 participants excluded from analysis because of one of the following: 1) they were not from the national cultures under investigation ($n = 12$); 2) they did not indicate what country they were from ($n = 2$); 3) they did not answer most of the questions regarding facework or power distance ($n = 12$); 4) their work experience was less than 6 months ($n = 39$). The minimum length of work experience requirement for this participant selection was important. Those who have worked at least six months are arguably more familiar with organizational context and might experience or observe organizational conflict at their own workplace. Thus, this condition limits the sample to individuals who are able to provide realistic and adequate answers to the survey questions.

The result was a sample for the two national cultures consisting of 348 participants: 153 Russians and 195 Americans (see Appendix A for complete demographic table). Russian participants were recruited via personal contacts in Russia who had access to students or who could distribute information about the research in

online groups similar to www.facebook.com called www.vkontakte.ru. American participants were recruited via classes at a large Midwestern university in the U.S. and given research credit for their participation. Participants were assured that their names would not be associated with the results, in accordance to the university's human subjects policy.

In the Russian sample, there were 39 male and 114 female participants. The average age was 25.17 ($SD = 5.74$). Among them were 101 (66%) students, and 52 (34%) non-students (most non-students recently graduated). There were 130 (85%) employed and 23 (15%) unemployed; 35.3% of the employed participants were working part-time and 64.7% were working full-time. The average work experience in months was 53.40 ($SD = 42.69$) or approximately 4.5 years. There were 77 participants who responded to the questionnaire version about the potential conflict situation with a superior, and 76 who responded to the questionnaire version about the potential conflict situation with a colleague. Among the Russian sample 18 (11.8%) never experienced the situation they read in the questionnaire, 104 (68%) experienced it sometimes, and 31(20.3%) found themselves in the situation often.

In the American sample, there were 98 males, 94 females, and 3 participants who did not identify their sex. The average age was 19.91 ($SD = 2.81$). Among them were 193 (99%) students, and 2 (1%) non-students. There were 110 (56.4%) employed, 84 (43.1%) unemployed, and 1 (0.5%) who did not identify their employment status; 92.3% of employed were working part-time and 7.7% were working full-time. The average work experience in months was 43.57 ($SD = 30.97$) or approximately 3.5 years. There were 103 participants who responded to the questionnaire version about the

potential conflict situations with a superior, and 92 who responded to the questionnaire versions about the potential conflict situations with a colleague. Among the American sample 33 (16.9%) never experienced the situation they read in the questionnaire, 145 (74.4%) had experienced it sometimes, and 17 (8.7%) found themselves in the situation often.

Questionnaire

The objective of this study was to determine the influence of national culture, relational status of other, and personal endorsement of power distance in a potential conflict situation at work. An online questionnaire format was utilized to investigate this objective (see Appendix B for the complete text of the questionnaire). The independent variables were national culture (American and Russian), relational status of other (higher or equal), and personal endorsement of power distance. National culture is measured with a single item (i.e., what is your country of permanent residence). The relational status was controlled by the version that was presented to the responders through the Qualtrics's randomization function (see Appendix B for the survey flow chart). Each of the versions contained only one of four different situations characterizing situations at work with a potential predisposition for conflict. Those situations were modified version of situations that were created as part of Brew's doctoral thesis (2002) on intercultural conflict in the workplace and used in the work of Brew and Cairns in 2004. Two situations described cases where potential conflict party was a supervisor; two others described cases where potential conflict party was a colleague. Each potential workplace conflict situation asked participants to identify how often participants experienced the given situation and indicate how the 39 statements presented to them reflected their

imagined or recalled behavior in the given situation; the 39 statements measured reported facework behavior in the given situations with a five-point Likert-scale ranging from five (strongly agree) to one (strongly disagree).

The statements measuring facework differed from situation to situation only by the word superior/colleague to keep responders focused on the situation context, and by the wording that varied depending on how they answered question on how often they experienced the situation. If they answered “never” they were asked to imagine experiencing this situation and indicate how the statements reflect what they would do in response to the situation; then the statements appeared in the “I would” format. If they answered “sometimes” or “often” they were asked to recall how it happened to them and indicate how the statements reflect what they did in response to the situation; then the statements appeared in the past tense format.

For example (see Appendix B for the survey flow chart):

First screen shows a random situation:

Read carefully the situation and answer the questions below.

You are having a problem with a task assigned by your supervisor and think you may have misunderstood his/her directions.

How often have you found yourself in this situation?

() never () sometimes () often

If they answered never the next screen displays:

Please read the situation again and imagine yourself experiencing it.

You are having a problem with a task assigned by your supervisor and think you may have misunderstood his/her directions.

Indicate how much the following statements reflect what you would do in response to this situation.

1. I would try to maintain my composure
2. I would admit that I made a mistake.
- etc..

If they answered sometimes or often the screen displays:

Please read the situation again and recall how it happened to you.

You are having a problem with a task assigned by your supervisor and think you may have misunderstood his/her directions.

Indicate how much the following statements reflect what you did in response to this situation.

1. I tried to maintain my composure.
2. I admitted that I made a mistake.
- etc..

Facework behaviors were measured with 39 items, modified from the 87 items used by Ting-Toomey and Oetzel (2000) to operationalize the 13 facework categories identified in Ting-Toomey and Oetzel's (2000) research. Each of the 13 categories was represented with three statements. All items were measured with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from five (strongly agree) to one (strongly disagree). The results of principal component factor analysis of their ratings revealed four major factors (factor loadings above .40 were retained). These major factors were labeled as integrative facework, passive facework, accommodative facework, and assertive facework (see Appendix C). The integrative facework factor was created by three integrating facework items and three compromising facework items; it emphasizes resolution of the conflict through finding a mutually acceptable decision or decision that would satisfy both of the sides at least partly. A new factor labeled passive facework was grouped by three avoiding facework items and three aggressive facework items; it emphasizes pattern of negative attitudes and passive, usually disavowed resistance. It can manifest itself in

learned helplessness, procrastination, sullen mood and verbal aggression. The accommodative facework factor was created by three apologizing facework items and three giving in facework items; it emphasizes preservation of the relationship with a conflict party by apologizing and acceptance of any behavior or decisions of another person. The assertive facework factor was created by two defending self facework items and two expressing feelings facework items; it emphasizes straight and open competitive behavior, not necessary confronting, but emphasizing high evaluation of person's own opinions versus others' (See Appendix C for more details). The items for each factor were averaged to create composite scores. Listed are the Cronback alpha reliabilities for four scales created in this study: integrative facework ($\alpha = .83$), passive facework ($\alpha = .77$), accommodative facework ($\alpha = .76$), and assertive facework ($\alpha = .73$).

Personal power distance was measured with a reduced Hofstede's (1991) scale. Reliability test of this scale for current research showed that reliable measurement of this variable ($\alpha = .68$) with only 4 out of 10 original items. Items 4, 5, 6 and 9 from the original scale were retained. For convenience, this scale was transformed into a new nominal value reflecting personal endorsement of power distance. Participants with scores lower than the median of the original power distance scale ($Mdn = 14$) were assumed to perceive low personal power distance; participants with scores higher or equal to the median of the original power distance scale ($Mdn = 14$) were assumed to have a high personal power distance. Independent samples t-test indicated that a high power distance and a low power distance groups were significantly different, $t(346) = -27.51, p < .001$.

The questionnaire was written in English, then translated into Russian and back-translated into English to ensure conceptual equivalence. Translation of the questionnaire into Russian was done by a team of two Russian translators with linguistic background; back-translation was done by a team of two American translators who are fluent in Russian, one of whom is an anthropology researcher, and the other experienced in professional translation of Russian literature into English.

The instrument was pilot tested for clarity and equivalence with a small group of people (n=4; 3 Russian and 1 Canadian) of different working experience. Three questions were modified with consideration of the received responses.

The first modified question was demographic and reflected a concern about the education level of the participants. The original form “Your degree (if not obtained, then expected)” was transformed into the following:

“What is your highest degree you have earned (if you are a student, what degree you expect to receive upon completion of your studies):

- ☐ BA/BS
- ☐ MA/MS
- ☐ Ph.D.
- ☐ Other _____” (see Appendix B)

This change was made due to the fact that one of the participants interpreted it as a request for his major. Although, another common degree in Russia is Specialist degree (higher than Bachelor but lower than Masters), the researcher did not add it among options. The reason for it is the in www.qualtrics.com one cannot not add an item in the translated Russian version of the questionnaire without changing the original English version. And adding item “Specialist” in English might confuse American participants.

Thus, participants with Specialist degree had to type the answer in the space next to the “other” option.

Another change was made to the English version of original question: “If you are a student, what is your year at the university.” It was transformed into “If you are a student, indicate your current year of study:

- ☐ 1st year (Freshman)
- ☐ 2nd year (Sophomore)
- ☐ 3rd year (Junior)
- ☐ 4th year (Senior)
- ☐ 5th year (Senior)
- ☐ Other _____”

The aim was to combine the options for the answers the way it made question clear for both American and Russian participants. Since many Russians complete a degree that requires five years of studies (Specialist), it was seen important to have numbers of years from one to five. On another hand the naming those years according to American system, would help American participant to understand the option to choose more clearly as well.

Situation #4 that originally was written as “You are unhappy with a colleague over an issue” was changed into “Your department is working on a group project. You are unhappy with one of your colleagues over an issue related to this project” (see Appendix A). This change was made due to ambiguity of the first version that confused the pilot participants.

In addition, participants suggested minor grammatical corrections that did not change the sense of the sentences. Overall, participants’ responses showed their understanding of the questions and produced a variety of answers that may be associated with various facework strategies.

Procedure

All participants completed the survey online at www.qualtrics.com. The website recognizes the default language of the responder's browser. If the browser's default language English or Russian, it opened the questionnaire automatically in the respective language. However, if the default language of the browser was not native for the participant, they could choose their native language in the top right corner of the screen. Most of the participants completed the questionnaire in their native tongue. Both, Russian and American participants were asked to read an internet information page prior to completing the questionnaire. This page (see Appendix B for complete text) contained information about research participant rights and contact information of Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL) in case they would like to learn more about it. They were reassured that their participation was anonymous, confidential, voluntary, and could not bring more discomfort than they would experience in everyday life.

The questionnaire was displayed in the following format: (a) demographic data, (b) description of one of four potential workplace conflict situations that differ by relational status of other, and one three-level Likert item to identify how often participants experienced the given situations, (c) description of the situation again, and 39 statements measuring reported facework behavior in the future-in-the-past tense or past tense, depending on the answer to the previous question, (d) six manipulation check questions for relational status of other, and (e) a reduced Hofstede's scale measuring personal endorsement of power distance (see Appendix B for the survey flow chart and complete text of the questionnaire).

Before submitting their answers to the questionnaire, participants were asked whether they are interested in the research credit/results of the survey (for Russians, the part of the question about research credit was not shown, and only the part about results of the survey were displayed on the screen). All the participants were once again reassured that their answers would not be in any way associated with their names. If they answered "No, I am not interested," they were exposed to a default end of survey screen saying "Thank you! Your response has been recorded." If they answered "Yes, I am interested in the research credit/results of the survey," they were redirected to a separate survey where they could leave their name and email if they were interested in the results of the survey; Americans interested in the research credit could also type their instructors' name and a class they were enrolled in.

Manipulation Check

To ensure that perceptions of relative status in the workplace were consistent across each of the national cultures, participants were asked to answer three general questions about the status of a supervisor and three general questions about the status of a colleague in organizations. The answers to those three items were averaged to make a composite score. Calculated means showed that both groups, Americans and Russians, perceived supervisors as having a higher status in the organization and a colleague as having the same status (see Appendix D for the list of means and standard deviations). Independent samples t-tests indicated that Russians and Americans did not differ in their perception of supervisor's status under supervisor condition, $t(178) = -.93, p > .05$, and had a significant difference for their perception of colleagues' status under colleague condition, $t(166) = -2.78, p < .01$.

Results

The data were analyzed with multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The dependent variables were the four types of facework strategies; the independent variables were national culture, relational status of other in a potentially conflict situation, and personal endorsement of power distance. The analysis showed statistically significant multivariate main effect for national culture, Wilks' lambda = .84, $F(4, 336) = 15.95$, $p < .001$, multivariate main effect for relational status of conflict party, Wilks' lambda = .95, $F(4, 336) = 4.11$, $p < .01$, multivariate main effect for personal endorsement of power distance, Wilks' lambda = .94, $F(4, 336) = 5.71$, $p < .001$, and a statistically significant multivariate interaction effect for national culture by personal endorsement of power distance, Wilks' lambda = .93, $F(4, 336) = 6.72$, $p < .001$ (see Appendix E for the list of means and standard deviations).

Relational status, that is whether the prompt dealt with a superior or a peer, had significant univariate effects on two types of facework: accommodation, $F(1, 339) = 9.68$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .03$, and assertion, $F(1, 339) = 6.51$, $p < .0125$, $\eta^2 = .02$ (see Appendix F, Table 1. for the list of means and standard deviations). Independent of the culture participants belonged to, they tended to accommodate more to a person who had a higher status in their organization. That is, they accommodated more to a superior than to a colleague. They tended to use assertive facework strategy more with a colleague than a superior. Perceived relational status had no significant effect on integrative and passive facework in the potential conflict situations at workplace (see Appendix F, Table 1.)

In order to explore the simple main effect of culture on facework within each level of power distance (high and low) and the simple main effect of personal power

distance levels on facework within each culture, a one way ANOVA test was run for each of the interactions of culture and personal power distance.

One way analysis of variance tests indicated that personal level of power distance had a significant effect on three facework types used by Americans. They were: integration, $F(1, 193) = 24.19, p < .001, \eta^2 = .11$, accommodation, $F(1, 193) = 15.92, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$, and assertion, $F(1, 193) = 28.45, p < .001, \eta^2 = .13$. Americans endorsing a high personal power distance level tended to use more integrative, more accommodative and more assertive types of facework than Americans endorsing a low personal power distance level. The use of passive facework did not vary significantly among Americans with high and low personal power distance levels. For Russians, personal power distance level had no significant effect on their use of facework strategies (see Appendix F, Table 2 for the means and standard deviations).

Culture had a significant effect on participants with low power distance in the use of integrative facework, $F(1, 144) = 20.87, p < .001, \eta^2 = .13$, passive facework, $F(1, 144) = 11.56, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$, and assertive facework, $F(1, 144) = 22.52, p < .001, \eta^2 = .14$, while for people with high power distance, culture had a significant effect only on use of accommodative facework, $F(1, 144) = 24.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = .11$. Russians endorsing a low level of personal power distance reported using more integrative, less passive, and more assertive facework than Americans with a low level of personal power distance. On the other hand, Americans endorsing a high level of personal power distance reported using more accommodative facework than Russians with a high level of personal power distance. (see Appendix F, Table 2).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate facework during potentially conflict situations at work across two national cultures: Russia and the United States. The major findings of the current study are the following: (a) relational status had small statistically significant effects on accommodative and assertive facework; (b) personal power distance had small statistically significant positive effects on integrative, accommodative and assertive facework used by Americans, and had no significant effect on facework used by Russians; (c) among individuals with low personal power distance Russians used more integrative, less passive, and more assertive facework than Americans; and (d) among individuals with high personal power distance Americans used more accommodative facework than Russians.

In this section I discuss the differences between the findings of the current study and previous research, and present theoretical and practical implications.

Relational Status at Work

Relational status had very small effects on the two types of facework: accommodation, and assertion. This influence did not differ by the culture of the participants. Individuals accommodated more to a supervisor than to a colleague, and were more assertive in their interaction with a colleague than with a supervisor. Perceived relational status had no significant effect on integrative and passive facework in potential conflict situations in the workplace. This result is different from findings of previous research (Oetzel et al., 2001) that showed “no difference for members of individualistic cultures between the equal and high status conditions” (p. 252), and a small difference for collectivistic cultures who used “more problem solve and more

respect” (p. 252) in high status conditions than in low status positions. The difference may be due to the fact that in previous research the status of the other was not considered specifically in an organizational context. In the previous study the participant, assigned to the higher status condition, could recall a conflict with a grandparent, a mentor, or a friend who holds a higher salary or position in the society. In contrast, this study asked the participant to imagine or recall a described situation that explicitly indicated the other person as a supervisor or a colleague. Thus, the situational factor plays a small but significant role in the potential conflict situation at work in both Russia and the United States. The overall absence of difference in effect between cultures may be due to the fact that Russia and the United States may be close on the individualism and power distance scales (Naumov & Puffer, 2000) or due to the similarity of Russian and American behavioral norms for conflict at work. The effect size of the relational status may be small because the relational status may not matter as much as we think, and other individual characteristics of the parties, such as personal endorsement of power distance, are more important.

National Culture and Personal Power Distance

Both national culture and personal power distance had small effects on the facework behavior of participants. Personal power distance had small positive effects on integrative, accommodative and assertive facework used by Americans, and had no significant effect on facework used by Russians. Similar results were gained by Oetzel and colleagues (2001). In their study, personal power distance had small positive effects on the following facework categories: aggression, defending, apologizing, pretending, third party and giving in (Oetzel et al., 2001). The differences are that in the present

study personal power distance had no effect on aggression (since it was a part of passive facework factor) and pretending, third party and giving in were not considered in this study (as they were not part of the major four factors discovered in the factor analysis of this study). Despite the mentioned differences, and the fact that Oetzel et al. (2001) did not mention the differences in power distance effect across four national cultures (the United States, Germany, China, and Japan), the current study confirms the results found in the previous research for the United States. However, the literature does not ground an explanation why in this study personal power distance had no effect on Russians. The researcher postulates that this finding may be grounded in the changing Russian cultural values, beliefs, and norms, which have yet to be explored. Thus, there is a need for further investigation in this area.

Moreover, a small effect size of power distance, just as in a previous research (Oetzel et al., 2001) “may be due to the fact that power distance measure focused on attitudes in general, rather than specifically to the recalled conflict” (p. 254). The personal power distance measure associated with the specific situation may give more accurate results, since individuals’ personal endorsement of power distance may depend on the situation, the relationship with the other in potential conflict situations at work, or even the work they do.

National culture also had small effects on participants with low personal levels of power distance in the use of integrative, passive, and assertive facework, while for people with high personal levels of power distance, national culture had an effect only on the use of accommodative facework. In the group of individuals endorsing a low level of personal power distance, Russians used more integrative, less passive, and more assertive

facework than Americans. While in the group of individuals with high level of personal power distance, Americans used more accommodative facework than Russians. Since there has been little research comparing the facework of Americans and Russians in the workplace, this work is an initial step in this direction. The explanatory mechanism maybe found in further research that would include additional independent variables such as cultural values, face-concern, self-construal, age and work experience.

For instance, participants in Russian sample were overall slightly older than Americans, had a much larger percentage of full-time employment and were more experienced at work than participants in American sample (see Appendix A). That could be why younger and less experienced Americans who endorsed high power distance tended to use more accommodative facework at work than older experienced Russians; or why Americans endorsing low power distance are less assertive in their behavior, tend to cooperate less than Russians, and use passive facework more than Russians do (see Appendix F).

Another potential explanation could be connected with differences in individualism-collectivism dimension and cultural norms. For instance, Russia historically has showed to be less individualistic than the U.S. In the middle 1990s, the U.S. had a high score of 91 on the axis of individualism, while Russia had a moderate score of 41 (Naumov & Puffer, 2000). While Russia has shown a rapid changing towards individualism, these differences can be still significant. Thus, for instance, highly individualistic Americans endorsing low power distance could use significantly less integrative and significantly more passive facework than more collectivistic Russians with low level of personal power distance, due to the fact that people in individualistic

society have lower other-face and mutual-face concerns. On another hand, among participants with high level of personal power distance, highly individualistic Americans could report accommodating more than relatively more collectivistic Russians, due to Americans' higher self-face concern. Nevertheless, these propositions should be tested in the further research.

Implications

The findings of the current study, framed by face-negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 2005), showed that relational status plays a significant role for cross-cultural conflict in organizational contexts. Specifically, relational status in the workplace has a small positive effect on the magnitude of accommodative facework and a small negative effect on assertive facework among Russians and Americans.

A second implication is that both cultural and individual factors may have an effect on the use of facework strategies in the workplace. Although findings showing the combined effects of national culture and personal power distance can be considered only an initial step for further investigation, it may already serve as a basis for recommendations addressed to professionals working with Americans and Russians in the same organization.

Among such recommendations for professionals are the following. Although both Russians and Americans tend to accommodate more to a superior in their organizations, among the individuals who accept hierarchy in organization, approve of a large difference in power and status between them and their supervisor, and believe that rewards should be based on rank and status, Americans may apologize and cede their point of view to end the conflict more often than Russians. That kind of difference in

communication behavior, if not discussed, may provoke a misunderstanding based on widespread stereotypes, where Russians may see perceived American “over-accommodation” as behavior that is not sincere enough, and thus as not deserving trust; and where Americans may see perceived Russian “under-accommodation” as behavior that is not polite enough, and thus as not deserving serious relationship due to a lack of respect from another side.

On another hand, results show that despite both American and Russian tendencies to be more assertive in communication with a person of equal status, or colleague, among the individuals who prefer a more equal relationship between them and their supervisor, Russians will be more direct, straightforward and open in expressing their ideas, thought, and feelings, and more defensive in regards of their opinions than Americans. This kind of difference may provoke a misunderstanding based on another widespread stereotype, where Americans may see perceived Russian “over-assertiveness” as too aggressive and too criticizing behavior, while Russians may see perceived American “under-assertiveness” as not enough clear communicative behavior that may raise the question of trust in the relationship.

It is interesting that in both cases mutual understanding between Russians and Americans may depend on the explanation about differences of perception of polite and trustworthy behavior in both countries. The following recommendations may help management of international companies that have a small number of international workers reduce the negative effects of conflict. The recommendations reflect an assumption that an expatriate will adapt to a local culture. American expatriates working in Russian organization should be informed about situations when apologizing is

unnecessary, and when it is considered rude in Russian culture. At the same time, Russians may better respect and trust an American who expresses more confidence in his or her own opinion, rather than giving in to end the conflict or explain himself/herself in somewhat vague manner, while others do not. In contrast, Russian expatriates working in American organization should be guided in when and how it is appropriate to show respect to others through more frequent apologizing, gratitude, agreement or less direct communication but without going to “over-accommodation” for American standards.

There is another difference between Russians and Americans that is worth noting. This study showed that in conflict situations, Americans who prefer a more equal relationship with their supervisors are less likely to compromise or find a win-win solution than Russians are. More than Russians, these Americans report using passive facework such as procrastination, avoidance, or negative attitudes toward their work situation. Although this difference may be also due to the difference in the average age of our cultural samples, this phenomenon should not be left without attention by global managers that might work with both Russian and American young expatriates.

Limitations and Conclusions

There are several limitations of the current study. First, the use of college students limits the generalizability of the findings. Behaviors associated with their age and work experience may differ from the normal distribution of the population; some of the survey responses provided by participants may reflect idealistic rather than realistic scenarios of behavior at workplace. Social desirability bias may also have influenced responses. Further studies should try to recruit participants with a wider age range and longer work experience. Additionally, since Russian culture has changed very much over

the last 20 years, it would also be interesting to explore differences in facework used by different generations. Furthermore, having people of older generation in the sample may increase the number of participants with managerial experience. The researcher also suggests including a subordinate as one more level of the variable, labeled here as relational status of other. This alone may enrich the study significantly.

Second, the current study did not consider face-concerns that could provide additional information for theory development and serve as an explanatory instrument for the findings. Future research should include face-concern measure as an additional variable.

Third, this study did not distinguish facework that might be used before (preventive facework), after (restorative facework) or during the actual conflict negotiation process. Thus, further investigations paying attention to the stages of the situation development may get more fruitful results.

Fourth, this study relied on self-report responses of participants. The nature of the study makes it difficult to employ methods other than self-report measures, especially if the research may be considered a first step for a large study investigating intercultural and intergroup communication within international organizations.

Overall, the study can be considered as a first step in understanding how cultural, individual, and situational level variables influence facework in potential conflict situations at work in two national cultures: Russia and the United States. It demonstrates that culture, relational status of other and personal power distance have small effects on the facework in these two countries. Despite the fact that there is a room for improvement in the study, the results can already be used by professionals working with

Americans and Russians in an organizational context. Further investigations of facework and conflict management should consider intercultural comparisons in order to advance understanding of facework at workplaces and help organizations improve communication among their culturally diverse employees and management.

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Appendix A. Demographic Data

Table 1

Participants Characteristics

	Russian Federation		The United States	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Participants	153	44.0	195	56.0
Sex				
Male	39	25.5	98	50.3
Female	114	74.5	94	48.2
Unidentified	0	0	3	1.5
Student status				
Student	101	66.0	193	99.0
Nonstudent	52	34.0	2	1.0
Employment				
Employed	130	85.0	110	56.4
Full-time	88	64.7	10	7.7
Part-time	48	35.3	120	92.3
Unemployed	23	15.0	84	43.1
Unidentified	0	0	1	.5
Experimental Condition				
Superior	77	50.3	103	52.8
Colleague	76	49.7	92	47.2
How often experienced				
Never	18	11.8	33	16.9
Sometimes	104	68.0	145	74.4
Often	31	20.3	17	8.7

Note. Percentage is given separately for each cultural sample. Percent for part-time/full-time employment is given from the total of people who answered question about part-time/full-time employment.

Table 2

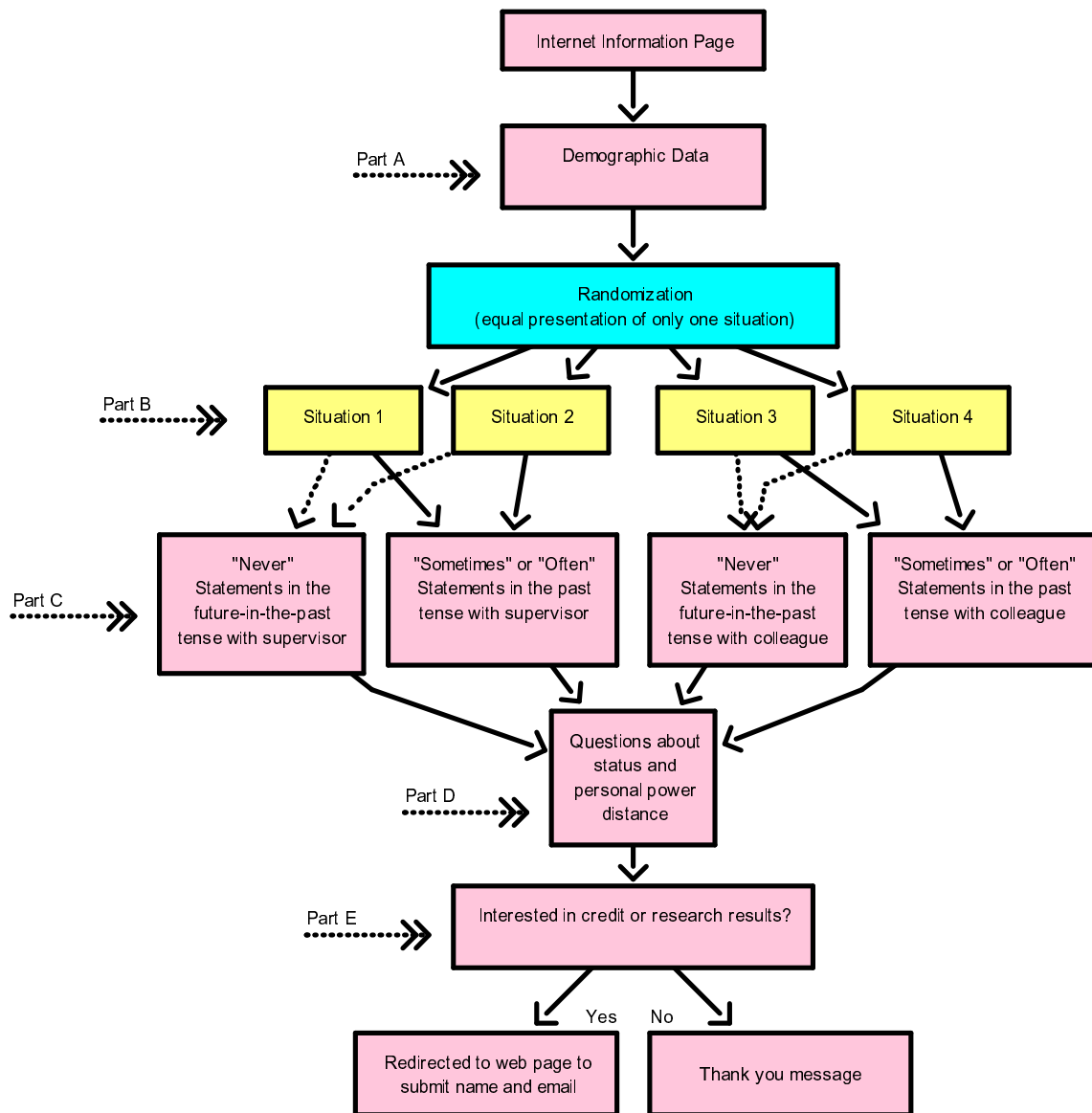
Means (SDs) Participants' Age and Work Experience by country

	Russian Federation		The United States	
	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)
Age (years)	25.17	(5.74)	19.91	(2.81)
Work Experience (months)	53.40	(42.69)	43.57	(30.97)

Appendix B. Questionnaire

Here you will find the logic of the survey flow as it was run at www.qualtrics.com and the full text of the questionnaire.

Figure 1. Survey flow for the current study on the www.qualtrics.com



Internet Information Page

The Department of Communication Studies supports the practice of protection for human subjects participating in research. The following information is provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in the present study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

We are conducting this study to better understand human behavior in potential conflict situations at workplace. This will entail your completion of a questionnaire, which is expected to take about 10 minutes to complete.

The content of the questionnaire should cause no more discomfort than you would experience in your everyday life. Although participation may not benefit you directly, we believe that the information obtained from this study will help us gain a better understanding of human behavior in the global workplace. Your participation is solicited, although strictly voluntary. Your name will not be associated in any way with the research findings. It is possible, however, with internet communications, that through intent or accident someone other than the intended recipient may see your response.

If you would like additional information concerning this study before or after it is completed, please feel free to contact me by phone or mail. Completion of the survey indicates your willingness to participate in the study and that you are at least age eighteen. If you have additional questions about your rights as a research participant, you may call (785) 864-7429 or write the Human Subjects Committee Lawrence Campus (HSCL), University of Kansas, 2385 Irving Hill Road, Lawrence, KS 6645-7563, email mdenning@ku.edu.

Sincerely,

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Survey Part A (Demographic Data):

What is your country of permanent residence?

☐ Russian Federation

☐ United States

☐ Other _____

What is your age: _____

What is your sex:

☐ male

☐ female

What is your highest degree you have earned (if you are a student, what degree you expect to receive upon completion of your studies):

☐ BA/BS

☐ MA/MS

☐ Ph.D.

☐ Other _____

Your major(s): _____

If you are a student, indicate your current year of study:

☐ 1st year (Freshman)

☐ 2nd year (Sophomore)

☐ 3rd year (Junior)

☐ 4th year (Senior)

☐ 5th year (Senior)

☐ Other _____

Are you currently employed?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Is your current employment full-time or part-time?

☐ full-time

☐ part time

What is your total length of work experience?

Please be as precise as possible. (Example: 3 years 4 months)

Years: _____ Months: _____

Survey Part B (Four Randomized Situations)

Only one situation was presented to the responder

Situation #1

Read carefully the situation and answer the question below.

You are having a problem with a task assigned by your supervisor and think you may have misunderstood his/her directions.

How often have you found yourself in this situation?

☐ Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often

Situation #2

Read carefully the situation and answer the question below.

You are participating in a business meeting with your colleagues, including your supervisor. You are of the opinion that your supervisor's position about some matter is incorrect.

How often have you found yourself in this situation?

☐ Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often

Situation #3

Read carefully the situation and answer the question below.

In a conversation with one of your colleagues at work, you suspect that you hold an opinion with which he/she most likely would not agree.

How often have you found yourself in this situation?

☐ Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often

Situation #4

Read carefully the situation and answer the question below.

Your department is working on a group project. You are unhappy with one of your colleagues over an issue related to this project.

How often have you found yourself in this situation?

☐ Never ☐ Sometimes ☐ Often

Survey Part C (Facework Measurement)

Only one situation was presented to the responder

If they answered never the next screen displays:

Please read the situation again and imagine yourself experiencing it.

(Situation text)

Indicate how much the following statements reflect what would do in response to this situation.

1. I would try to maintain my composure
2. I would admit that I made a mistake.
- etc..

If they answered sometimes or often the screen displays:

Please read the situation again and recall how it happened to you.

(Situation text)

Indicate how much the following statements reflect what you did in response to this situation.

1. I tried to maintain my composure.
2. I admitted that I made a mistake.
- etc..

For situation 1 & 2 the statements were:

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Unsure	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
I would try to maintain my composure. / I tried to maintain my composure.	()	()	()	()	()
I would admit that I made a mistake. / I admitted that I made a mistake.	()	()	()	()	()
For me, it would be important to help my supervisor to preserve his/her pride. / For me, it was important to help my supervisor to preserve his/her pride.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try not to discuss the matter in front of others. / I tried not to discuss the matter in front of others.	()	()	()	()	()

I would consult with a third party for advice on how to deal with the situation. / I consulted with a third party for advice on how to deal with the situation.	()	()	()	()	()
I would pretend I am not upset. / I pretended I was not upset.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to verbally insult my supervisor. / I tried to verbally insult my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would not admit I was wrong. / I did not admit I was wrong.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be concerned with not appearing weak in front of my supervisor. / I was concerned with not appearing weak in front of my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would work together with my supervisor to find a solution that is acceptable to us both. / I worked together with my supervisor to find a solution that was acceptable to us both.	()	()	()	()	()
I would cede my point of view to solve the problem. / I ceded my point of view to solve the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would avoid encountering my supervisor. / I avoided encountering my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would express myself in a somewhat vague manner. / I expressed myself in a somewhat vague manner.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to listen to my supervisor attentively in order to solve the problem. / I tried to listen to my supervisor attentively in order to solve the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would listen to my supervisor attentively in order to demonstrate my respect. / I listened to my supervisor attentively in order to demonstrate my respect.	()	()	()	()	()
I would say bad things about my supervisor behind his/her back. / I said bad things about my supervisor behind his/her back.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to hide out. / I tried to hide out.	()	()	()	()	()

I would be concerned with not damaging my supervisor's self-image. / I was concerned with not damaging my supervisor's self-image.	()	()	()	()	()
I would agree with my supervisor to end the conflict. / I agreed with my supervisor to end the conflict.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to ignore the problem and behave as if nothing happened. / I tried to ignore the problem and behaved as if nothing had happened.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to talk with my supervisor through an outside party. / I tried to talk with my supervisor through an outside party.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try not to get angry. / I tried not to get angry.	()	()	()	()	()
I would wait until we are by ourselves to talk about the problem. / I waited until we were by ourselves to talk about the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be concerned with protecting my self-image. / I was concerned with protecting my self-image.	()	()	()	()	()
I would acknowledge some of my supervisor's good points so that he/she would acknowledge some of mine. / I acknowledged some of my supervisor's good points so that he/she would acknowledge some of mine.	()	()	()	()	()
I would ask for forgiveness. / I asked for forgiveness.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to make him/her feel guilty. / I tried to make him/her feel guilty.	()	()	()	()	()
I would insist that my position be taken into account. / I insisted that my position be taken into account.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to express my feelings in a straightforward manner. / I tried to express my feelings in a straightforward manner.	()	()	()	()	()
I would raise one question after another, listening to what my supervisor has to say about each until the problem is solved. / I raised one question after another, listening to what my supervisor had to say about each until the problem was solved.	()	()	()	()	()

I would try to keep our discussion between the two of us. / I tried to keep our discussion between the two of us.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to remain calm. / I tried to remain calm.	()	()	()	()	()
I would behave as if the conflict did not exist. / I behaved as if the conflict did not exist.	()	()	()	()	()
I would ask a third party to help solve the problem. / I asked a third party to help solve the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try not to offend my supervisor. / I tried not to offend my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would suggest solutions which combine both of our viewpoints. / I suggested solutions which combined both of our viewpoints.	()	()	()	()	()
I would apologize for what has happened. / I apologized for what had happened.	()	()	()	()	()
I would not want to talk with my supervisor. / I did not want to talk with my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be worried about the possibility of ending up in an awkward position in front of my supervisor. / I was worried about the possibility of ending up in an awkward position in front of my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would accept whatever my supervisor says. / I accepted whatever my supervisor said.	()	()	()	()	()
I would take into consideration feelings of my supervisor. / I took into consideration feelings of my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
My concern would be to act humble in order to make my supervisor feel good. / My concern was to act humble in order to make my supervisor feel good.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to compromise with my supervisor. / I tried to compromise with my supervisor.	()	()	()	()	()
I would make it clear to my supervisor what I think about the matter. / I made it clear to my supervisor what I thought about the matter.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to defend my position. / I tried to defend my position.	()	()	()	()	()

For situation 3 & 4 the statements were:

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Unsure	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
I would try to maintain my composure. / I tried to maintain my composure.	()	()	()	()	()
I would admit that I made a mistake. / I admitted that I made a mistake.	()	()	()	()	()
For me, it would be important to help my colleague to preserve his/her pride. / For me, it was important to help my colleague to preserve his/her pride.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try not to discuss the matter in front of others. / I tried not to discuss the matter in front of others.	()	()	()	()	()
I would consult with a third party for advice on how to deal with the situation. / I consulted with a third party for advice on how to deal with the situation.	()	()	()	()	()
I would pretend I am not upset. / I pretended I was not upset.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to verbally insult my colleague. / I tried to verbally insult my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would not admit I was wrong. / I did not admit I was wrong.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be concerned with not appearing weak in front of my colleague. / I was concerned with not appearing weak in front of my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would work together with my colleague to find a solution that is acceptable to us both. / I worked together with my colleague to find a solution that was acceptable to us both.	()	()	()	()	()
I would cede my point of view to solve the problem. / I ceded my point of view to solve the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would avoid encountering my colleague. / I avoided encountering my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would express myself in a somewhat vague manner. / I expressed myself in a somewhat vague manner.	()	()	()	()	()

I would try to listen to my colleague attentively in order to solve the problem. / I tried to listen to my colleague attentively in order to solve the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would listen to my colleague attentively in order to demonstrate my respect. / I listened to my colleague attentively in order to demonstrate my respect.	()	()	()	()	()
I would say bad things about my colleague behind his/her back. / I said bad things about my colleague behind his/her back.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to hide out. / I tried to hide out.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be concerned with not damaging my colleague's self-image. / I was concerned with not damaging my colleague's self-image.	()	()	()	()	()
I would agree with my colleague to end the conflict. / I agreed with my colleague to end the conflict.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to ignore the problem and behave as if nothing happened. / I tried to ignore the problem and behaved as if nothing had happened.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to talk with my colleague through an outside party. / I tried to talk with my colleague through an outside party.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try not to get angry. / I tried not to get angry.	()	()	()	()	()
I would wait until we are by ourselves to talk about the problem. / I waited until we were by ourselves to talk about the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be concerned with protecting my self-image. / I was concerned with protecting my self-image.	()	()	()	()	()
I would acknowledge some of my colleague's good points so that he/she would acknowledge some of mine. / I acknowledged some of my colleague's good points so that he/she would acknowledge some of mine.	()	()	()	()	()
I would ask for forgiveness. / I asked for forgiveness.	()	()	()	()	()

I would try to make him/her feel guilty. / I tried to make him/her feel guilty.	()	()	()	()	()
I would insist that my position be taken into account. / I insisted that my position be taken into account.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to express my feelings in a straightforward manner. / I tried to express my feelings in a straightforward manner.	()	()	()	()	()
I would raise one question after another, listening to what my colleague has to say about each until the problem is solved. / I raised one question after another, listening to what my colleague had to say about each until the problem was solved.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to keep our discussion between the two of us. / I tried to keep our discussion between the two of us.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to remain calm. / I tried to remain calm.	()	()	()	()	()
I would behave as if the conflict did not exist. / I behaved as if the conflict did not exist.	()	()	()	()	()
I would ask a third party to help solve the problem. / I asked a third party to help solve the problem.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try not to offend my colleague. / I tried not to offend my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would suggest solutions which combine both of our viewpoints. / I suggested solutions which combined both of our viewpoints.	()	()	()	()	()
I would apologize for what has happened. / I apologized for what had happened.	()	()	()	()	()
I would not want to talk with my colleague. / I did not want to talk with my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would be worried about the possibility of ending up in an awkward position in front of my colleague. / I was worried about the possibility of ending up in an awkward position in front of my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would accept whatever my colleague says. / I accepted whatever my colleague said.	()	()	()	()	()

I would take into consideration feelings of my colleague. / I took into consideration feelings of my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
My concern would be to act humble in order to make my colleague feel good. / My concern was to act humble in order to make my colleague feel good.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to compromise with my colleague. / I tried to compromise with my colleague.	()	()	()	()	()
I would make it clear to my colleague what I think about the matter. / I made it clear to my colleague what I thought about the matter.	()	()	()	()	()
I would try to defend my position. / I tried to defend my position.	()	()	()	()	()

Survey Part D (Personal Power Distance and Relational Status):

Below are 16 statements regarding issues at work, in the classroom, and at home. Indicate how much you agree or disagree with them.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
Supervisors have a higher status than you.	()	()	()	()	()
Supervisors have more decision-making power than you.	()	()	()	()	()
Supervisors have more authority in the organization than you.	()	()	()	()	()
Your co-workers have the same status in the organization as you do.	()	()	()	()	()
Your co-workers have as much decision-making power as you do.	()	()	()	()	()
You and your co-workers have equal authority in the organization.	()	()	()	()	()
Within an organization, employees should feel free to express disagreement with management.	()	()	()	()	()
Within a classroom, students should be allowed to express their points of view without being punished by the teacher/professor.	()	()	()	()	()
At home, children should be allowed to openly disagree with their parents.	()	()	()	()	()
The primary task of a manager is to monitor the work of the employees to make sure they are doing their jobs appropriately.	()	()	()	()	()
Authority is essential for the efficient running of an organization, classroom, or home.	()	()	()	()	()
At work, people are more productive when they are closely supervised by those in charge.	()	()	()	()	()
In problem-solving situations within organizations, employees' contributions are important.	()	()	()	()	()
Generally, employees, students, and children should be seen and not heard.	()	()	()	()	()
Obedience to managers, teachers, and parents is good.	()	()	()	()	()
Managers, teachers and parents should be considered equal to their workers, students, and children.	()	()	()	()	()

Survey Part E (end of the survey or redirection):

You are about to finish this questionnaire.

If you are interested in research credit and/or the results of the survey, please, press "Yes, I am interested in the research credit/results of the survey", and you will be redirected to another survey where you will be able to leave your name and contact information. Your name and contact information will not be associated in any way with the research findings.

If you are not interested in none of the above, please, press "No, I am not interested."

☐ Yes, I am interested in the research credit and/or results of the survey!

☐ No, I am not interested.

Appendix C. The Results of Factor Analysis for Facework Strategies

Table 1

The Results of Principal Component Factor Analysis for Facework Strategies

Items	Factors			
	INTF	PASF	ACCF	ASSF
Integrative Facework (INTF)				
10 I worked together with my supervisor/colleague to find a solution that was acceptable to us both.	.65			
14 I tried to listen to my supervisor/colleague attentively in order to solve the problem.	.62			
15 I listened to my supervisor/colleague attentively in order to demonstrate my respect.	.64			
30 I raised one question after another, listening to what my supervisor/colleague had to say about each until the problem was solved.	.57			.38
36 I suggested solutions which combined both of our viewpoints.	.57			
43 I tried to compromise with my supervisor/colleague.	.68			
Passive Facework (PASF)				
7 I tried to verbally insult my supervisor/colleague.		.45		
12 I avoided encountering my supervisor/colleague.		.72		
16 I said bad things about my supervisor/colleague behind his/her back.	-.31	.52		
17 I tried to hide out.		.61		
27 I tried to make him/her feel guilty.		.45		
38 I did not want to talk with my supervisor/colleague.		.72		
Accommodative Facework (ACCF)				
2 I admitted that I made a mistake.			.76	
11 I ceded my point of view to solve the problem.			.44	
19 I agreed with my supervisor colleague to end the conflict.			.47	
26 I asked for forgiveness.			.73	
37 I apologized for what had happened.			.73	
40 I accepted whatever my supervisor/colleague said.		.37	.43	-.37
Assertive Facework (ASSF)				
28 I insisted that my position be taken into account.				.75
29 I tried to express my feelings in a straightforward manner.				.57
44 I made it clear to my supervisor/colleague what I thought about the matter.	.43			.67
45 I tried to defend my position.	.37			.66

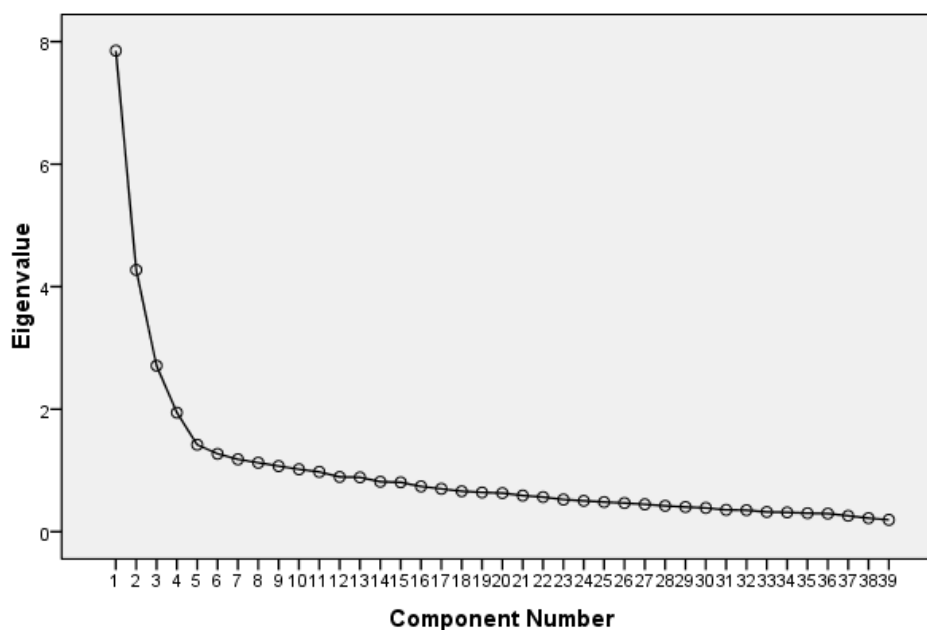
Note. INTF = Integrative Facework; PASF = Passive Facework; ACCF = Accommodative Facework; ASSF = Assertive Facework.

Table 2

Distribution of Items for 13 Facework Strategies in the Questionnaire

№	13 Facework	Statements number in the questionnaire		
		7	27	16
1	Direct/Passive Aggression [AG]	2	37	26
2	Apologizing [A]	38	17	12
3	Avoiding [AV]	43	36	25
4	Compromising [CP]	41	15	35
5	Considering the other [CO]	8	28	45
6	Defending self [DS]	13 _a	29	44
7	Expressing feelings [EF]	11	19	40
8	Giving in [GI]	30	14	10
9	Integrating/Talking about the problem [IT]	21	34	5
10	Third party [TP]	20	6	33
11	Pretending [PR]	4	23	31
12	Private discussion [PD]	32	22	1
13	Remaining calm [RC]			

_a subscript is the items that is reversed

Figure 1. Scree Plot of the Eigenvalues for Facework Strategies

Appendix D. Means (SDs) Relational Status of Other by Condition

Table 1

Condition	Country	Supervisor		Colleague	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Supervisor	Russian Federation	4.06	.67	3.32	.92
	United States (USA)	4.16	.74	3.80	.94
Colleague	Russian Federation	3.81	.97	3.30	1.00
	United States (USA)	4.06	.74	3.71	.90

Appendix E. Means (SDs) Ratings of Facework Strategies and Power Distance

Table 1.

Scales	Culture	Mean	(SD)
Integrative	Russian Federation	4.12	(.73)
	United States	3.85	(.69)
	Total	4.00	(.72)
Passive	Russian Federation	1.99	(.76)
	United States	2.09	(.75)
	Total	2.92	(.76)
Accommodating	Russian Federation	2.79	(.83)
	United States	3.26	(.68)
	Total	3.05	(.78)
Assertive	Russian Federation	3.88	(.73)
	United States	3.76	(.72)
	Total	3.81	(.73)
PPD	Russian Federation	12.92	(2.69)
	United States	15.10	(2.77)
	Total	14.14	(2.94)

Note: PPD = Personal Power Distance.

Appendix F. Means (SDs) Facework Strategies Ratings

Table 1.

Means (SDs) Facework Strategies Ratings by Relational Status of Other

Facework type	Supervisor		Colleague	
	Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)
Integrative	4.02	(.72)	3.91	(.71)
Passive	2.09	(.76)	2.09	(.76)
Accommodating	3.19 _a	(.76)	2.89 _b	(.78)
Assertive	3.74 _a	(.74)	3.89 _b	(.71)

Note: Means with different subscripts differ significantly at $p < .0125$.

Table 2.

Means (SDs) Ratings of Facework by Country and Personal Endorsement of Power Distance

Facework	Culture	High PPD		Low PPD	
		Mean	(SD)	Mean	(SD)
Integrative	Russian Federation	4.18 _{ab}	(.69)	4.06 _a	(.76)
	United States	3.98 _a	(.62)	3.46 _b	(.73)
Passive	Russian Federation	2.07 _a	(.78)	1.94 _{ab}	(.74)
	United States	2.10 _a	(.76)	2.37 _{ac}	(.67)
Accommodating	Russian Federation	2.80 _a	(.85)	2.78 _{ab}	(.82)
	United States	3.37 _b	(.69)	2.93 _a	(.56)
Assertive	Russian Federation	3.84 _{ab}	(.76)	3.91 _a	(.71)
	United States	3.91 _a	(.67)	3.32 _b	(.72)

Note: PPD = Personal Power Distance; Means with different subscripts differ significantly in the row and column for each facework strategy at $p < .0125$.